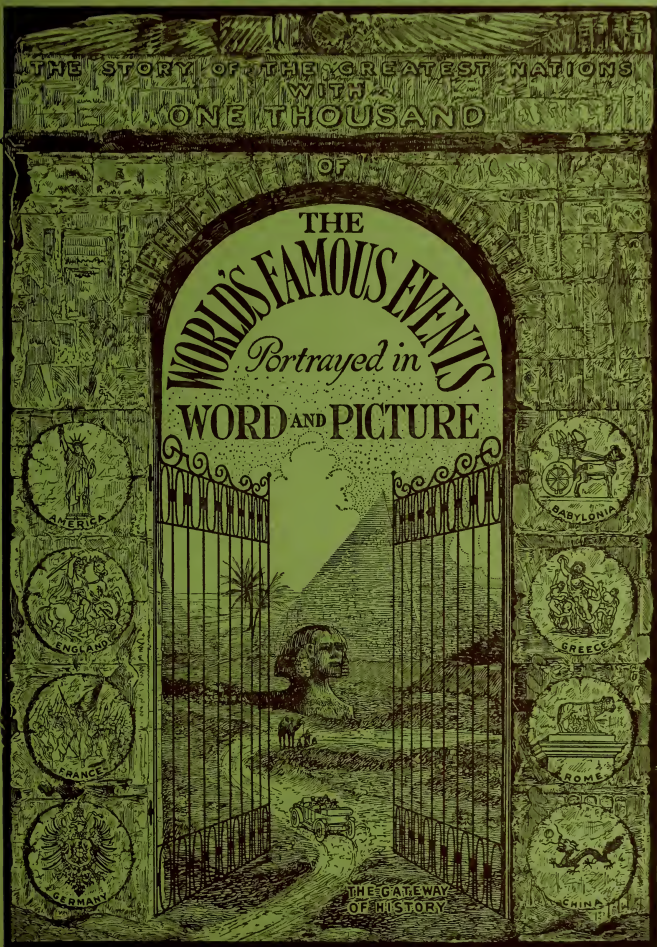


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ROMAN FAITHFULNESS

(Regulus Returns to Death by Torture Rather than Break His Word)

By the first great American artist, Benjamin West (1738-1820)

TO THIS first Carthaginian war belongs the celebrated story of Regulus. He was the Roman Consul who, after the fleet of Carthage had been twice defeated, led an army into Africa. The African peoples subject to Carthage offered little resistance, and Regulus was soon able to lay siege to Carthage itself. In their extremity the Carthaginians employed a Spartan general, who completely defeated the small Roman army and took most of its men prisoners, including Regulus. He was sent by his captors to Rome to negotiate a peace, having first pledged himself to return.

The Roman senate asked Regulus to advise them as to their course, whereon, in the presence of the envoys who accompanied him, the heroic consul sternly advised his people to continue the war, and told them how weak Carthage had become. Then he returned to Africa. The fate that awaited him at the hands of the vengeful Carthaginians was obvious, and his Roman friends entreated him to stay with them rather than go back to certain death. But Regulus, who had scorned to buy his safety by urging peace, scorned also to break his plighted word, so he left Rome amid the weeping of his people. The Carthaginians tortured him to death. Rome avenged him by prolonging the war until she had driven the enemy out of Sicily and conquered the island. It became the first Roman province.







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HANNIBAL CROSSING THE ALPS

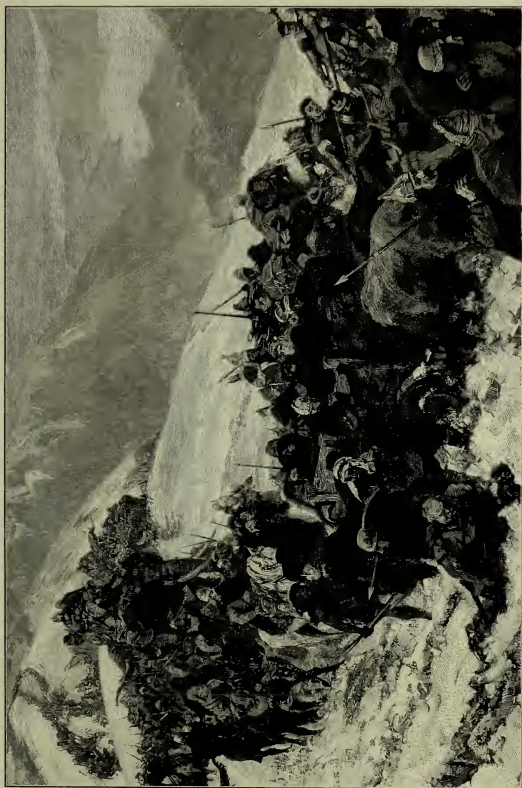
(The Carthaginian Army Invades Italy)

By the contemporary French artist, Albert Charpentier

THE story of Rome's second war with Carthage belongs chiefly to the story of Carthage, as it was conducted by her wonderful general, Hannibal. He had trained a splendid army in Spain, and after deliberately provoking the Romans to war, he marched this army from Spain into Italy. His passage over the Alps, as here depicted, was a remarkable test of the loyalty and endurance of his men. Never before or afterwards did any Carthaginian command such an army as this. They endured everything, every extremity of heat and cold and starvation, out of devotion to their beloved general.

That the Romans were able to withstand such an army as this is evidence of their own power. But, indeed, they never matched this army in the field. Hannibal defeated them time after time. They could only shut themselves within the walls of their cities and wait while time and disease sapped the strength of Hannibal's force. He maintained himself for fifteen years in Italy, a far worse scourge to the land than the Gauls had ever been. But the mass of the Italians remained true to Rome, so able had been her rule. The forces of Hannibal slowly dwindled away.







SCIPIO'S GENEROSITY

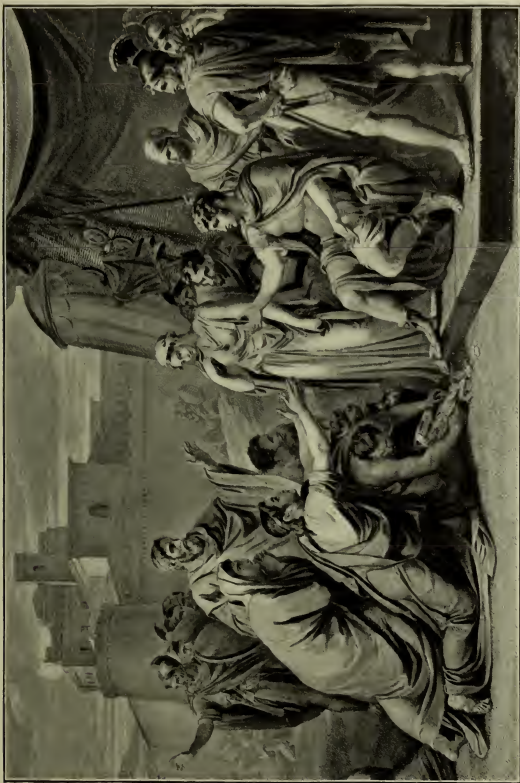
(Scipio Restores the Captured Spanish Princess to Her Lover)

By the German artist, Henry Schopin (1804-1880)

THE victory which Rome finally achieved over Carthage in this their greatest war was due mainly to a youthful general, who arose after the war had continued many years. This was Scipio, named from his triumph Africanus. His father and his uncle had commanded the Roman forces in Spain, but had both been defeated and slain. The cause of Rome in that quarter seemed completely lost. When the Roman people met to elect a new general to take command there, no candidate came forward to offer himself for the hopeless post. There was a moment of dismay, then Scipio, a young man of only twenty-five, arose and offered to take up the task in which his ancestors had perished.

In Spain his success was immediate. Not only did he defeat the Carthaginian armies, but also won the favor of the native Spaniards. These fierce tribes had loved their Carthaginian ruler Hannibal, but had grown to hate his savage successors. Scipio treated them with a fairness and generosity before unknown to warfare. He captured a beautiful Spanish princess, and instead of ignoring her grief and making her his slave, as had been the universal custom of conquerors, he inquired into her sorrow. Learning that she had been betrothed to a young Spanish chief who was in arms against him, Scipio sent for the lover, and without exacting any conditions whatever, gave him back his sweetheart. The romantic Spaniards became his devoted allies. They entreated him to become their king.







A TRAGIC WEDDING GIFT

(Queen Sophonisba Accepts Her Husband's Gift of Poison to Escape Roman Tyranny)

From an old Dutch engraving of the seventeenth century

HAVING driven the Carthaginians from Spain, Scipio carried the war into their own continent of Africa. As his chief ally he had a young Numidian prince, Masinissa, whose whole life story reads like a romance. Two Numidian nations, tributary to Carthage, held the coast of Africa opposite Spain. Masinissa, the ruler of the weaker of these, was betrothed to Sophonisba, daughter of the Carthaginian governor of the entire region. Then his beloved was taken from him and wedded to the other more powerful Numidian king. In revenge Masinissa became Scipio's chief lieutenant in the conquest of Africa. Together they fought repeated battles, and at last completely overthrew the Carthaginian army and its Numidian ally.

Masinissa now found Sophonisba the widow of his former rival. Being still devoted to her, and fearing she would be seized as a Roman prisoner, he hastily wedded her. Scipio was offended, and sent stern word to his lieutenant that no one must expect to thwart the purposes of Rome. Masinissa, despairing but defiant, sent Sophonisba a cup of poison with a message that it was her only escape from Roman slavery. She answered firmly that she accepted with pleasure so noble a nuptial gift, and she drank the draught. Scipio afterward regretted his own severity and heaped every honor upon Masinissa to atone for his sweetheart's loss.







CIVIL AND POLITICAL HISTORY

OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
FROM 1776 TO 1865

BY
J. H. HARRIS, LL.D.,
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

VOLUME I.
FROM 1776 TO 1800.
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THE TRIUMPH OF SCIPIO

(His Gorgeous Procession Emphasizes Rome's New Position as Leader of the World)

After the series of paintings by Peter Paul Rubens, the Flemish master (1577-1640)

SCIPIO had reduced Carthage to such sore straits that her rulers had no choice but to summon the great Hannibal home from Italy. He came with a mere remnant of his famous army. Carthage herself had no troops left. Hastily Hannibal gathered what raw levies of Africans he could, and met the triumphant forces of Scipio at Zama (202 B.C.). The Romans were victorious, and Hannibal hastened to make peace on any terms. The Carthaginians became dependent subjects of Rome, giving her all their ships and paying an enormous tribute.

The crisis of Rome's fortunes was thus safely passed. Her great rival was overthrown, and in all the world there was left no power which could match her. Scipio returned home to enjoy the greatest honors which any general had yet received. The most gorgeous triumphal procession the Romans had ever seen marched in his honor up the sacred hill to the Capitol. The enormous quantity of the spoils he had gathered in Africa not only enriched him and all his soldiers, but enabled Rome to pay off all the debt she had contracted during the long and exhausting war. Many noted Romans who had suffered for years in Carthaginian captivity marched also in the triumphal procession; and African beasts strange to the Romans emphasized for them the fact that they had won the mastery of a new continent.







THE HOME OF SCIPIO ÆMILIANUS

(The Scipios Set an Example of Moderation to the Wealthy Romans)

By A. H. Schramm, a contemporary German artist

THE years that followed the triumph of Scipio Africanus are often spoken of as the "golden age" of Rome. Her people had acquired world-wide power and enormous wealth, but they had not yet been corrupted by the splendor of their position. These were the great days of the Scipio family. A brother of Africanus won the title of Scipio Asiaticus by leading the first Roman army into Asia and winning a victory there which reduced all Syria to submission.

The last of these great early Romans was Scipio Æmilianus, who was a relative and adopted grandson of Africanus, and whose father conquered Macedonia. Scipio Æmilianus stood forward as the champion of the old Roman ways against the new extravagance and licentiousness that began to pervade the wealthy city. Though himself, as the heir of Africanus, the wealthiest man in Rome, Scipio conducted his household with a dignified simplicity. He was the champion of all who were oppressed. When the excitable Roman mob would not listen to his warning counsels, he withdrew to the quiet of his home, only to be again and again called forth when Rome had need of him. The Italians of the surrounding cities, who had held so loyally by Rome in her struggle against Carthage, began to feel themselves unjustly treated, and Scipio became their champion. He was found one morning murdered in his bed. Rome entered the tragic days of her internal strife.







THE DESTRUCTION OF CARTHAGE

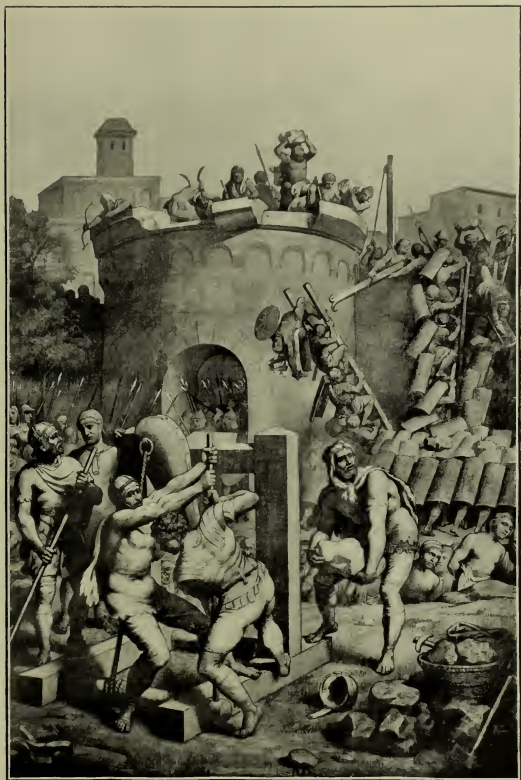
(The Assault upon the Suburbs by Which the City was Reduced to Starvation)

From an engraving of the seventeenth century

AMONG the most noted of the achievements of Scipio Æmilianus was the final destruction of Carthage. For over fifty years after the decisive victory of Scipio Africanus, the Carthaginians had remained submissive to Rome. They repaired their fortunes, rebuilt their fleets, and became again so wealthy and prosperous that the Romans feared them and resolved on their destruction. Deliberate tyranny drove them to revolt; and such was the strength of their city and the desperation of their cause that they withstood all the power of Rome for nearly three years.

Scipio Æmilianus conducted the siege of Carthage with a skill worthy of his great ancestor. He was not given command until several previous generals had been foiled by the Carthaginians. Scipio attacked the walls of a suburb, whence the besieged drew most of their provisions. After battering these walls, he brought moving towers against them, and so captured the suburb and reduced the Carthaginians almost to starvation. Finally, by an unexpected attack, the Romans penetrated a gate of the main city. The desperate citizens still fought on for an entire week, defending street after street amid the ruins of their blazing homes. When the Roman conquest was completed, Carthage had ceased to exist, and no Carthaginians survived except those who were prisoners of war in Roman hands.







CORNELIA AND HER SONS

(The Celebrated Mother Guiding Her Sons Amid the Life of Rome)

By the contemporary Italian artist, P. Piatti

ANOTHER noteworthy figure in the days of Scipio Æmilianus was Cornelia, a daughter of the great Scipio Africanus, and wedded to Sempronius Gracchus. She has become for us the typical mother of those Roman days; for it was she who made the celebrated speech declaring that she wanted to be known to posterity "not as the daughter of the Scipios, but as the mother of the Gracchi"; that is, she hoped to train her sons so that they would be even more famous than her ancestors. Of Cornelia also is told the well-known story that when another wealthy Roman matron displayed with pride her gorgeous jewelry, Cornelia called her children, and displayed them with still greater pride, saying, "These are my jewels."

Cornelia's daughter wedded Scipio Æmilianus and became the presiding deity of his noble life. Cornelia's two sons became, as Æmilianus had been, the champions of the people. Both of them were slain, as was he, martyrs to the civil strife which now arose betwixt rich and poor in Rome. Caius Gracchus, the younger son, became especially the people's champion. He had laws passed which made the Roman populace practically subsist on alms, the government dealing out corn to all within the city. This unfortunately attracted thither the idle and the lazy from all Italy. Rome was ruled by a turbulent mob; and Caius was slain in one of the upheavals which now came repeatedly to disgrace the city.









THE SLAVES OF ROME

(Men and Women of Every Degree of Culture or Barbarism Exposed in the Markets)

By the contemporary French artist, G. R. Boulanger

ANOTHER danger also began at this time to threaten the degenerating Romans. Their conquests had brought them vast numbers of slaves. Their defeated enemies were sold into slavery, hundreds of thousands at a time. The slave-market at Rome was so overstocked that both the Romans and their wretched victims became brutalized. Human beings were sold more cheaply than cattle, and were treated worse. The farmer class disappeared from Italy. The entire country was divided into huge estates, owned by wealthy Romans. These estates were devoted to cattle raising and were occupied only by slaves.

The utterly heartless treatment of these victims of Roman power led them at last to rebellions of desperation. They revolted against their masters in Sicily in 133 B.C., and for two years held possession of most of the island, avenging themselves in kind for the tortures which had been inflicted on them. A second slave-war arose a generation later, and all the forces of Rome, her soldiers gathered from many lands, were needed to crush the rebellion. In this second war the slaves were men of education and self-restraint. They were guilty of no needless cruelties; and when the last of them were captured and sent as gladiators to Rome, they refused to fight with men and beasts for the amusement of the Romans, but slew themselves by falling on their own swords.







THE COMING OF THE GERMANS

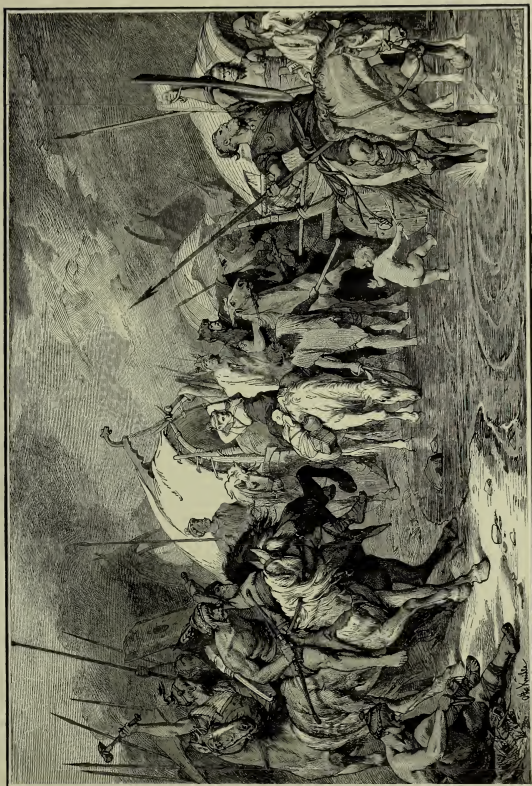
(The Migrating "Teutones" Enter Gaul)

From a sketch by the contemporary German artist, Otto Kniler

IT WAS in this period of Rome's power that she first met those German tribes which were ultimately to cause her overthrow. In the year 113 B.C. there came out of the forests of northern Europe vast hordes of wandering barbaric tribes, who called themselves Cimbrians and Teutones. They crossed the Rhine River, ravaged central Europe at will, and, as they advanced toward Italy, defeated one Roman army after another. Four times they were thus victorious over the rulers of the world, their last and most impressive victory being in 104 B.C., when they slew over a hundred thousand Roman soldiers.

Fortunately for Rome, the barbarians knew little of the political state of Europe. Instead of penetrating Italy and perhaps capturing Rome itself, as the Gallic tribes had done three centuries before, the Cimbrians and Teutones now wandered westward into Spain, and ravaged that province. This gave Rome time to recruit her forces. Her people rallied with something of the old sternness which had made them great. Their ablest general, Caius Marius was made Consul. The surviving Romans enlisted in his army almost to a man. But instead of attacking the barbarians and losing this last army, Marius devoted himself to drilling his raw troops. Year after year he avoided battle; and year after year the Romans re-elected him Consul in defiance of their own law, which forbade any man to hold the chief office two successive years. When at length the barbarians returned from Spain, Marius was ready for them.







THE LAST STAND OF THE BARBARIANS

(The Cimbrian Women Defending Themselves and Their Children at Vercellæ)

From a painting by the contemporary German artist, W. Lindenschmit

MARIUS not only broke the power of the invading hordes of Cimbrians and Teutones, he completely annihilated them. So vast were their numbers that they divided into two bodies, the Teutones seeking to enter Italy from France, and the Cimbri coming from Austria and the east. As the Teutones passed the camp of Marius they challenged him to battle, heaping such scornful insults on his soldiers that he could scarcely restrain the fury of his men. But he waited, followed the Teutones till he caught them at a disadvantage, and then in a great battle at Aix defeated them, destroying them all, with all their women and children.

The next year (101 B.C.) he met the Cimbrians in Italy itself. He defeated and destroyed them in a great battle at Vercellæ. As the Cimbrian warriors fled to their camp, they were met and slain by their own women, who then fought the Romans until all hope was gone. In the end, sooner than be made slaves, the women slew their own children and committed suicide. Those who lacked weapons strangled themselves in loops of their own hair.

Marius was hailed as the preserver of Rome and was ranked with Romulus, its founder, and with Camillus, who three centuries before had saved it from the Gauls.







THE AMERICAN LITERARY REVOLUTION

THE AMERICAN LITERARY REVOLUTION, OR THE HISTORY OF THE LITERATURE OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM THE FIRST SETTLEMENTS TO THE PRESENT TIME.

By CHARLES C. SMITH, LL.D.,
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.
WITH ILLUSTRATIONS BY J. H. WATSON.
NEW YORK: PUBLISHED BY J. H. WATSON, 15 N. 2ND ST. N. Y.
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OPENING OF THE CIVIL WARS

(Sulla Fights His Way into Rome at the Head of His Troops)

From a sketch by an anonymous English artist

WE COME now to the period of the Roman civil wars. Having overthrown the last of their external enemies, the Romans fought among themselves. Marius, the conqueror of the barbarians, was the originator of the strife. His countrymen had set aside the law and elected him Consul five times; but now that the danger from the barbarians was past, they expected him to step aside. Instead, he came forward as candidate for a sixth consulship. This roused against him all the really patriotic Romans, and though he was elected, it was only after scenes of tumult in which the lower classes, acting as partisans of Marius, deliberately murdered the foremost of his opponents.

The deliberate butchery thus begun by Marius was soon copied by his chief rival, Sulla. The Roman Senate had given Sulla command of the army for a war in Asia. Marius, in jealousy, raised a revolt in Rome, and drove out the senators. His partisans, being thus in control, commanded Sulla to resign command of the army. Instead, Sulla marched his soldiers into Rome.

Never before had Roman arms been thus turned against the city. The astounded citizens fought the troops of Sulla in the streets, and held them back until Sulla himself led on his men. They forced their way to the Capitol, where Sulla restored his friends the senators to power, and had Marius and his adherents banished.





for some of the gold cheaper and lighter metals; and they had been obliged to use more of these, to get the proper weight. So the volume of the crown was too great, and when Archimedes plunged it into the water the liquid rose too high; thus the cheat was proven.

Among the many inventions credited to Archimedes are the endless screw and the water-screw, in the latter of which the water is made to ascend by its own gravity. During the siege of Syracuse, he exerted his wonderful ingenuity in its defence; but while Polybius, Livy, and Plutarch speak with amazement of the machines he employed, they fail to mention the common story that he set fire to the enemy's ships by means of mirrors. When the city fell, tradition says Archimedes was sitting so deep in thought over a number of geometrical figures before him, that he knew nothing of the assault. The Roman general had given special orders to save the valuable life of the philosopher. A soldier, bursting in on him, demanded if he was Archimedes; but the sage only called out to the intruder to be careful not to destroy the figures he had drawn, and the warrior cut him down. In accordance with the wishes of Archimedes, a cylinder inclosing a sphere was engraved upon his tombstone, in commemoration of his discovery of the relation between these solids—the discovery being one upon which he placed great value.

Let us now return to the operations of Hannibal. He had been driven from the plains of Cannæ by the tactics of Fabius, but his success enabled him to select Capua as his headquarters. There he and his soldiers surrendered themselves to the charms of a balmy climate and luxurious living, while awaiting the arrival of his brother Mago from Africa or Hasdrubal from Spain; but neither came, and the people around him, instead of flocking to his aid, showed a hostile disposition. He therefore roused himself and set out to reduce the strong places in his neighborhood. He suffered numerous repulses and was deserted by a large body of Spanish foot and Numidian horse, but even with his reduced forces he accomplished wonders. In the same year (B.C. 212) that Syracuse fell into the hands of the Romans, he captured Tarentum, and, pushing northward, advanced so near to Rome that he was in plain sight from the walls. Half of the Romans who were besieging Capua hastened to the defence of the city, and Hannibal dared not make an attack. It may be doubted whether he had any thought of assaulting the city from the first. He fell back, and Capua was soon after taken by the besieging Romans, who showed the inhabitants no mercy, because they had been conquered before, treated generously, and then, when the chance offered, went over to the side of the invader. Seventy of its senators were executed; three hundred of its foremost citizens thrown into chains, and the remainder sold into slavery.

The tide had turned, and other Roman successes followed the fall of Capua

(B.C. 211). A treaty assured the Ætolians against the attacks of Philip of Macedonia, and Rome secured a base for aggressions on the eastern shore of the Adriatic. The following year Lævinus, who had become consul, captured Agrigentum, the last Carthaginian stronghold in Sicily, and Scipio had reduced Spain. Terms of friendship were renewed with Ptolemy the Egyptian, and in B.C. 209 the Romans captured Tarentum, which was so abominated that 30,000 of the inhabitants were sold into slavery.

The situation of Hannibal was steadily growing worse, and his brother Hasdrubal decided to abandon Spain and go to his relief. The march was long, and had to be a circuitous one to escape the Roman forces that were on the watch to head him off. He entered Italy at the head of a large and powerful army. Driving the Roman generals before him, he crossed the great plain of the Cisalpine and moved along the line of the upper coast, in the attempt to make a junction with Hannibal in the south. To C. Claudius Nero, the consul chosen by the patricians, was assigned the task of holding Hannibal in check in Brutium, while M. Livius, the representative consul of the plebeians, was ordered to check the advance of Hasdrubal, with his new invaders. He was unable to do this, and they pressed steadily on till they arrived in front of the camp of Livius before the walls of Sena. Hannibal as yet knew nothing of the arrival of his brother, who now sent horsemen to him with the news, but they fell into the hands of Nero, and the letters they bore explained all the plans to the Roman general, who hitherto had been as ignorant of them as Hannibal himself.

It will be understood that the news was of the highest importance, and Nero acted promptly. After a feint to deceive Hannibal, he hurriedly advanced northward with a portion of his army, and, as soon as he joined Livius, urged him to make immediate attack. Hasdrubal had been quick to note the arrival of the reinforcements and had fallen back, but was surprised by a flank attack of Nero, totally routed, and killed (B.C. 207). Wheeling about, Nero moved swiftly toward Hannibal. The latter still had no knowledge of the arrival of his brother from Spain. Hardly had Nero appeared, when a soldier flung the head of a man into the Carthaginian lines. When it was picked up and examined, it was recognized as that of Hasdrubal.

It was the beginning of the end. Hannibal must have seen that sooner or later he would be obliged to withdraw from Italy; but he held his ground at the extremity of the peninsula for a long time, and it is not impossible that he might have stayed indefinitely, had not the Romans made a radical change in their policy. It was decided by the Senate, in B.C. 205, in answer to the urgent insistence of Publius Scipio, who had made himself master of Spain, that an army should be sent against Carthage, while Hannibal was still in Italy.

This would be "carrying the war into Africa," of which we often hear in these days.

Scipio was highly educated, refined, possessed of consummate military genius, and so popular, not only with his own countrymen, but with others, that it was said of him that wherever he set foot he could have established himself as king. The Senate did not consent to his plan of invading Africa until he threatened to appeal to the people, who would not have been denied. Scipio landed in Africa in B.C. 204, and laid siege to Utica, but was unsuccessful and suffered the loss of his fleet.

With the story of this campaign is interwoven one of the most pathetic romances in history. You will recall Masinissa, the young African king, who had joined Scipio in Spain to revenge the giving of his beloved Sophonisba to his rival, Syphax. Syphax was still an ally of the Carthaginians; Masinissa therefore clung to the Romans, and united his forces once more with those of Scipio. Their combined armies overthrew those of Syphax and the Carthaginians. Masinissa was given charge of the pursuit, and followed Syphax relentlessly for fifteen days, overtook him, completely overthrew him in a second bloody battle, and seized his royal city. In the palace of the captured city, met the conqueror and the queen. There old love flamed up anew. Syphax was by this time a prisoner doomed to a Roman dungeon, so Masinissa wedded the queen. Their happiness, however, was of short duration; Sophonisba was of the race of Hannibal, Rome's ablest and most inveterate foes, and Rome claimed her as a prisoner. Masinissa pleaded all his services, but the envoys were inflexible. The daughter of Hasdrubal must march captive in a Roman triumph, and then languish in a Roman dungeon. Masinissa knew there was but one way of escape, and himself gave to his bride the cup of poison which she calmly drank, and died.

After the defeat of Syphax, the Carthaginian Senate, alive to its peril, recalled Hannibal from Italy, and he sailed from Crotona in the autumn of B.C. 203, under the protection of an armistice. He did not land at Carthage, but at Leptis, and many months passed before a battle took place. This was fought on the plain of Zama in the autumn of B.C. 202, and was of the most decisive character. Scipio and Hannibal were pitted against each other, but the soldiers under the Roman were immensely the superior of the Carthaginians, who were totally routed and Hannibal himself was put to flight. Scipio—known thereafter as Scipio *Africanus*—on his return to Rome was honored with the most magnificent triumph ever seen in the capital.

Scipio proved his real greatness by his moderation and generosity. Carthage lay at the feet of the conqueror, and the chiefs of the legions vehemently insisted that it should be utterly destroyed, but Scipio refused to permit this,

nor would he demand the delivery of Hannibal himself. Carthage was allowed to retain her laws at home and to continue to rule her countries in Africa; yet she was compelled to pay dearly for her defeat. She had to surrender all her ships except ten, all her munitions of war, and agree to make no war even in Africa, without the consent of Rome. These terms, if hard, were exceedingly mild, compared with many others imposed in similar cases, and as nothing to the bitter cup which Carthage was yet destined to drink to the dregs.

Hannibal execrated Rome as bitterly as ever, and he began plans for another and far better prepared campaign in Italy. He brought about a number of constitutional reforms in Carthage, but he had jealous enemies, and they accused him to the Romans of stirring up Antiochus III. of Syria to revolt. When the Roman ambassadors came to Carthage, Hannibal fled to the court of Antiochus at Ephesus. At the conclusion of the war which followed, one of the conditions of peace was the requirement by Rome of the surrender of the illustrious Carthaginian; but, expecting such a demand, Hannibal had fled to Prusias, king of Bithynia, for whom he gained a naval victory over the king of Pergamum. Finally, he was peremptorily demanded by the Romans. Expecting this also, Hannibal was always prepared with a bottle of poison, which he now drank, and thus closed his extraordinary career.

There is a story that when Hannibal was spending his exile in Syria and Bithynia, Scipio had to go into exile also for a time; and the two made their home in Ephesus, where they spent many hours together in friendly conversation. Naturally the principal subject of these talks were the campaigns in which they had confronted each other, and in which Scipio had finally proved the victor. One day as they sat thus together, the Roman asked Hannibal whom he thought to be the greatest general.

"Alexander," was the prompt reply; "because with a small body of men he defeated immense armies and overran a great part of the world."

"Whom do you rank next?"

"Pyrrhus, for he first taught the method of forming a camp to the best advantage."

"And whom do you place next to those?" asked Scipio.

"Myself," replied Hannibal.

Scipio smiled and mildly inquired, "Where, then, would you have placed yourself if you had conquered *me*?"

"Above Alexander," was the bold answer of the Carthaginian; "above Pyrrhus and above all other generals."

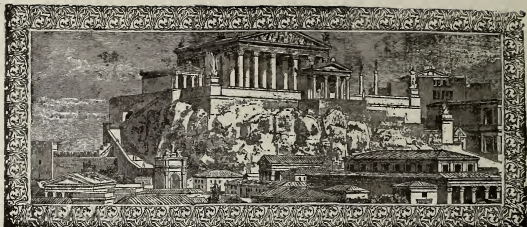
Rome steadily advanced her dominion. While the second Punic War was going on, King Philippos, of Macedon, as related in our history of Greece, made a treaty with Hannibal, which embroiled him with Rome. She sent an army

against Philip, and in the hostilities that followed some of the Greek states sided with Rome and some with Macedon. It has been shown that in the battle of Cynocéphalæ, fought in Thessaly, in B.C. 197, the power of Macedon was broken and Philip was forced to become a dependent ally of Rome. In B.C. 168 the Macedonians were utterly crushed at Pydna, and in B.C. 146 Corinth was taken and burned. All resistance to the triumphant Romans ceased, and Greece became the Roman province of Achaia.

The third Punic War began in B.C. 149 and was waged in brutal wantonness by Rome. Carthage had become her dependent ally, though left free in its internal government; but there was a party in Rome bent on humiliating it to the very dust. The leader was Porcius Cato, the censor, and master of the Roman Senate. He became such a monomaniac that every speech he made, no matter to what he referred, closed with the impressive exclamation, *Delenda est Carthago*!—"Carthage must be destroyed!"

The fateful words fell upon willing ears, but the aged Cato died before the awful blow was struck against the helpless city. The Carthaginians made every submission, giving up their arms, their ships, their munitions of war, and they went so far as to offer to surrender their own government and become subjects of Rome. But the cause of Rome's hatred was her fear and jealousy of her rival. Carthage had once threatened the very existence of Rome, when the African armies were led by a military genius. True, Hannibal was dead, but who should say that one as great as he would not rise up to take his place? Carthage still contained three-quarters of a million of people; and so long as she was allowed to exist, she would be a menace to Rome. It was decreed, therefore, that the city should be razed and the people be sent to dwell inland. And then, realizing that their destruction had been determined upon, the inhabitants resolved in the desperation of despair to die rather than submit to the ferocious mandate.

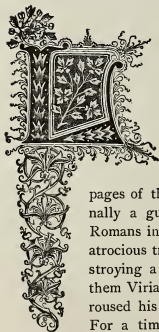
The siege of Carthage was conducted by P. Scipio Æmilianus, and lasted for four years. The harrowing story makes one shudder even after the lapse of more than twenty centuries. The city had no ships, no allies, and only a few crude weapons, but the women gave their tresses for bowstrings, and they and the men shrank from no sacrifice or suffering. When the loss of the citadel of Byrsa and the defeat of the Punic general (another Hasdrubal) rendered all resistance useless, the gaunt defenders still manned the walls. The fighting was kept up for six days in the streets, and then for more than two weeks fire raged, until the proud city that had stood for seven hundred years was turned to smouldering embers and ashes.



THE CAPITOLINE HILL

Chapter XXXII

ROME CONQUERS THE WORLD AND GROWS CORRUPT



LET us note the tremendous strides that Rome was making in acquiring dominion. She was now mistress of Greece and of Carthage, the East and the South. Spain still defied her authority and kept her arms at bay for some years. She advanced step by step, however, though the Lusitanians, on the western shores of the peninsula, produced a great leader whose name will always stand out among the brightest on the pages of the early history of that ancient land. Viriathus, originally a guerilla chief, put forth his utmost efforts to check the Romans in their attempt to conquer his country. By an act of atrocious treachery, the Roman general Galba succeeded in destroying a large body of the natives. A few escaped, among them Viriathus, who was so incensed by the treachery that he roused his countrymen to undying hostility against the invaders.

For a time he and his band kept among the inaccessible mountains and harassed the enemy by sudden, swift raids. In B.C. 147 he felt strong enough to give battle to the Romans, and inflicted on them a severe defeat. Throughout the following two years he continually repeated his victories; but in B.C. 144 a large Roman army drove him back into his native fastnesses. He rallied, and the force sent against him was utterly crushed at the "Hill of Venus." In B.C. 141, Viriathus was once more successful, and the whole Roman army was surrounded in a mountain pass and compelled to surrender. He showed mag-

namity in his triumph, allowing his captives to go away unharmed on condition of the recognition of the independence of the Lusitanians. These terms were accepted, but in B.C. 140, Cæpio having been appointed to command in Spain, treacherously and suddenly renewed the war. Fearing from the past that his arms would not succeed, he bribed a number of Lusitanian envoys who had been sent to him to propose peace, and they murdered their hero while he lay asleep in his tent. No one was fitted to take his place, and, though the brave struggle was continued for a number of years, it was hopeless. Spain became, like so many other countries, a province of Rome (B.C. 133). Some of the inhabitants were taken to the capital behind the conqueror's chariot, but most of them were sold as slaves; and Numantia, which had bravely withstood a long siege, was so completely razed that it is almost impossible to trace its ruins to-day.

Thus the power of Rome was supreme in the four principal peninsulas which project into the Mediterranean, and among the chief islands. When the period of conquest was opened in B.C. 266, the Roman dominion was confined to the single peninsula of Italy. When it closed in B.C. 133, Rome was supreme over the whole of Southern Europe, from the straits of Constantinople to the Atlantic, over the principal Mediterranean islands, over Carthage in North Africa, and over Egypt, Asia Minor, and Syria in the East.

Rome was able to retain her hold upon these distant provinces because of her wisdom in governing them. In many districts the inhabitants found their condition more tranquil, more secure, and more pleasant than when distracted by the petty rivalries of their own chiefs. All these conquered provinces were allowed to retain their native religion, laws, habits, and peculiarities; but each was governed by a military president sent from Rome, with his staff of officials. The people had to pay large taxes; and these were farmed out by the censors to Roman citizens, who were known as *Publicans*, and who settled in the respective districts where their interests lay. Thus Rome was the great heart whose pulsations were felt to the remotest point of the immense organization.

These vast successes led her to regard her mission as that of *conquest*, instead of *civilization*. The work of the Romans was to *rule*, not to *instruct* mankind. If there was security in some of her provinces, there was none the less tyranny and oppression, for the policy often acted on was that, by robbing and impoverishing the conquered, they would be shorn of the means of future revolt.

Now there were two distinct effects produced upon the Romans themselves by their conquests, and while one was perhaps good, the other was bad. The spoliation of the provinces poured an enormous stream of treasures into Rome. Among them were many of the choicest works of art in Greece, which could not fail to exert, in a greater or lesser degree, a refining influence upon the

spoilings, for the very perfection of these immortal products of almost divine genius commanded the reverence of the most degraded.

The veins winding inward from the remote provinces brought the scholars, rhetoricians, tragedians, and philosophers to the great heart, whose throbbings did not send them out again. Hundreds of Greek tutors, philosophers, and schoolmasters made their home in Rome, where their services were bought by the patricians, sometimes at an immense price. Thus it may be repeated that, to a certain extent while Greece was conquered by the might of Rome, yet in an intellectual sense she conquered her master. Of course among the Romans there was no lack of native literary power, but they needed stimulus to awaken them to action and development. This they received from the Greek literary culture that flowed all around them. While the flowering of the Augustan age was still a century away, yet there rose a number of writers of unquestioned ability.

The unbounded wealth which poured in also enabled Rome to carry out a series of magnificent public improvements. Italy was welded together by numerous military roads, so finely built that many remain to this day. The Tiber was spanned by excellent bridges of stone, the city was sewered, and the streets paved. Of the two new aqueducts, the Marcian, built in B.C. 144, cost \$10,000,000. The ordinary clock, or time-piece, of course was unknown till centuries afterward, but in B.C. 159 the consuls set up a public clepsydra or water-clock, so that for the first time all might learn the exact hour of the day or night.

Thus gorgeous benefits accrued to Rome through her far-reaching conquests; but it cannot be doubted that even greater evils also resulted. The brilliant culture of Greece was crimsoned with impurity. The rugged virtues of the Romans were corrupted; love of luxury rooted out the once Spartan-like simplicity; physical strength collapsed before flabby degeneracy; marriage was openly scoffed at; even the old Roman faith, in which there was nothing of Christianity, lost its grip upon the people, and it was said that when two augurs, the pretended prophets of the faith, met on the street they could not avoid laughing in each other's faces.

There is no decay so shrivelling, so deadly, and so fearful as moral decay. It is the sure precursor of death. As Rome soared aloft like the imperial eagle toward the mid-day sun, the venomous serpent was twisted about its neck, and burying its fangs in its vitals. The political system of Rome grew to be as rotten as that of the purlieus of the worst-governed city of modern times. Bribery was open; the slave-trade was extended to meet the demands of the extensive planters. Syria and the interior of Asia Minor were swept back and forth by the ferocious traders, who hustled their droves of wailing wretches

into the Italian peninsula until, a century and a half before the Christian era, their number was more than double that of the freemen. The doom of the mightiest city the world ever knew was as plainly written as was that of Babylon by the handwriting on the wall at the impious feast of Belshazzar.

The name Gracchus is such an honored one in Roman history that you will be interested in a brief account of the illustrious members of the family. Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, who was consul in B.C. 238, did superb work in the military operations in Corsica and Sardinia, while another of the same name distinguished himself in the second Punic War, and for his success in opposing Hannibal received the consulship in B.C. 215, and again in 213, only to lose his life after many victories, in battle with Mago, the brother of Hannibal, perhaps through treachery. Hannibal honored him with a splendid funeral, as the one Roman whom he held in admiration.

There were several other Gracchi of lesser note, till we reach another Tiberius Sempronius, who was born about B.C. 210, and for many years was one of the foremost citizens of Rome. He served as tribune, ædile, prætor, twice as consul, as censor, and was one of the most distinguished of military leaders. He brought about a number of excellent constitutional changes, and marrying Cornelia, a daughter of Scipio Africanus, became the father of twelve children, nine of whom died in youth.

It is of two of his sons, Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus and Caius Sempronius Gracchus, that we have now to speak. Their father having passed away while they were very young, they were educated with great care and gentle wisdom by their mother. She told them that she wanted the world to remember her, not as the daughter of Scipio, but as the "mother of the Gracchi." On one occasion a lady of rank had boastfully displayed all her jewelry, and suggested that Cornelia should in turn display hers. The wise mother drew her two young sons toward her, saying, "These are my jewels."

It is not to be wondered at that the lads grew to be noble and high-minded as well as ambitious men. Their sister became the wife of the second Scipio Africanus, and with him the elder lad, Tiberius Sempronius, served, and was present at the capture of Carthage. He is said to have been the first Roman to scale the walls of the doomed city. When he was with the army in Spain, the Numantines, remembering the good faith of his father forty years before, refused to treat with any one but him. It was because of their admiration for his character that they spared a Roman army of 20,000 men who were at their mercy. The aristocratic senate in Rome repudiated the treaty, and the result has already been told.

Observation and inquiry impressed the young quæstor with the sad condition of the whole of Italy. The Roman magnates lived in luxury and sloth in

the cities, while their estates were cultivated by slaves. These were Thracians, Africans, or Iberians in Etruria, which once furnished powerful armies to the Republic. The old law of Licinius, that possession of the land should be limited to a certain extent, had become dead; and nearly everywhere the immense estates had fallen into the possession of a few, who drove away the free cultivators of the soil and gave it over to the wretched bands of foreign laborers.

These facts caused Tiberius Gracchus gloomy reflections. "Not long ago," he said to himself, "Italy could arm 700,000 foot-soldiers and mount 70,000 cavaliers. All were disciplined, and all were freemen; but suppose another Hannibal should strike at her, what resources has she to parry the blow or to strike back? Should the Italian tribes rise up on their mistress, how can she control them? What can she do if one of her generals marches her own legions against her? Ah! the glory, the power, the might of Rome have become an empty shadow."

The disease demanded heroic treatment. There was but one solution of the problem, and that could scarce be made a peaceable one. The system of society must be wholly overturned. The only aristocracy in Rome was the one founded on wealth. No longer were there any patricians or plebeians, but the two great divisions, the rich and the poor, the worst division conceivable. Corrupt to the core, the hordes in the city lived in noisy idleness by selling their votes to the highest bidder. The destruction of the Republic was as near as it was certain, unless the drastic remedy was applied with merciless rigor.

Tiberius Gracchus proposed a land or agrarian law, which was in effect a revival of the Licinian law, and which limited the amount of public land that could be held by one person to something less than 300 acres. The vast area which this would leave vacant was to be distributed among the poor in the form of small homesteads. He allowed some additional land to proprietors who had children, and devised a plan for indemnifying those that were to be deprived at once of their actual occupations.

As may be supposed, the aristocracy immediately raised a furious protest, and the debates were bitter to the last degree. Now, it was Roman law that no proposal could become legal unless all the tribunes agreed to it. The aristocracy induced one of the tribunes to interfere by veto. Tiberius was so enraged that he appealed to the assembly of the tribes, and a decree was passed turning the obnoxious tribune out of office after which the law was passed. Then Tiberius, his brother Caius, and his father-in-law, Appius Claudius, were nominated triumvirs for carrying the proposed law into effect.

Face to face with the momentous question, the aristocrats determined to prevent the election of these men by force; learning which, Gracchus bade his friends to arm themselves with staves. Seeing this, some of the people asked

Gracchus the meaning of it. He raised his hand to his head to signify that his life was in danger. Several of his enemies ran to the Senate, exclaiming that he demanded a crown.

Scipio Nasica, a leading noble, urged the consul Scævola to kill Gracchus, but seeing him hesitate, he sprang forward himself, flinging the skirt of his toga over his own head, as if about to perform a sacrifice, and shouted to the citizens to revenge themselves upon the traitor. Instantly a furious riot started, in which several were killed. Tiberius, seeing his friends defeated, ran to the temple of Jupiter for refuge, but the priests shut the doors in his face. His foot struck a dead body, and while in the act of recovering himself, one of his associate tribunes stretched him on the ground with a fearful blow of his club. As he lay, he was beaten to death, and with him perished three hundred of his supporters. The bodies were dragged to the bank of the Tiber and flung into the water. Thus, in the year B.C. 133, the era of civil strife opened in Rome.

In the midst of the clamor, Scipio Æmilianus came back victorious from Numantia. When he was told of the death of his brother-in-law, he declared that the fate was deserved. Scipio was now the foremost man in Rome. Though belonging to the aristocracy, he was more moderate than they, and did nothing except to obstruct the carrying out of the measures he disliked. Soon the opening of war with the Illyrians gave excuse for suspending the further execution of the hated law until a more tranquil season.

Rome had dignified her subject states in Italy with the name of allies, and followed the policy of entrusting the affairs in those states to the control of the aristocratic party in each. So the chiefs of Samnium and Campania were as anxious as the aristocrats in Rome for the defeat of the new law; but they were angrily disgusted to see the freedmen or former slaves of the Romans elevated to citizenship, while they themselves were not allowed to vote. They determined to secure the citizenship, and chose Scipio as their champion in bringing this about. He had been twice consul, and now the people, wearied of the continual turmoil, wished him to become Dictator.

Momentous questions were at issue, and Scipio retired to his chamber to meditate upon the words he would speak on the morrow to the citizens; but when morning came he was found dead, and the mystery of his taking off was never explained. No wound was discovered on his body, but his slaves said that his house had been entered at night and the crime committed by persons unknown to them. Some accused the mother of the Gracchi, and some the wife of Scipio, but the Senate pressed no inquiry and thereby drew suspicion of guilty knowledge to that assemblage itself.

The loss of their champion threw the Italians into consternation. One of

their captains, Perpena, had gained Roman citizenship and finally been elected consul. His people were steadily working their way to the franchise, but the Senate now ordered their expulsion from the city. Then the leaders of the popular party made common cause with the Italians. Caius Gracchus, the younger brother of him who had been slain eight years before, claimed and obtained the tribuneship, and then took up his dead brother's work. Fulvius, being elected consul, assisted him by introducing measures to further their policy; but the Senate managed to have the consul removed to the command of an army, while Caius was sent to an official post in Sardinia. The object of all this was so plain that the Italians were exasperated. One of their little commonwealths in its desperation flew to arms, but was put down with such harshness (B. C. 125) that the Italians remained cowed for years.

The nobles thought they saw their opportunity for crushing Caius, and impeached him on the charge of inciting the insurrection. But they had overstepped themselves; the impeachment failed and he was elected tribune. He threw all his energies into carrying out the policy of his brother. Indeed, he went further, for he aimed at the full reconstruction of the whole Roman system of government. With all his unquestioned patriotism, it cannot be doubted that Caius was strongly stirred by ambition and the feeling of revenge. Octavius, the tribune who had interfered with his brother's action, was threatened with proscription from office, and another, who had persecuted his brother's adherents, was in such danger of impeachment that he was frightened into voluntary exile.

The course of Caius now made him the idol of the people. He confirmed the principles of his brother's agrarian law; had corn regularly distributed among the poorer classes; caused taxes to be laid on different articles of luxury; supplied the soldiers gratuitously with clothing, which formerly they had to provide for themselves; planted colonies for the immediate relief of those who had been waiting long for the promised division of lands, and gave employment to hundreds in the construction of roads and bridges.

A revolution, which Caius was determined to bring about, was that of granting full admission to the Latins and Italians to the right of suffrage. His martyr brother had held the same wish, but the prejudices of the populace would not permit the measure to be carried to success, since it threatened to derive them of some of the gratuities that now fell to their share.

The Italians were hungry for the public lands, for the assignment of land as colonists, and for a share in the honors of the city, and the offices in the provinces. The nobles saw all this and became more alarmed, for Caius seemed never to rest content with what he had accomplished, but was resolved to spur forward till a complete revolution was established. This fear became fierce in-

dignation when he proposed and carried through a bill for founding colonies in the very cities that had been the most dangerous rivals of Rome. Thus he tried to restore the political importance of Capua and Tarentum in Italy, as well as to plant a colony of plebeians amid the ruins of Carthage—a project sufficient almost to make Cato turn in his grave.

In his ardor, Caius left the city upon this business, having been unwise enough to divest himself of his tribuneship before going. His absence gave his enemies the opportunity which they were not slow to improve. Their most determined leader Opimius was appointed to the consulship, so that Caius upon his return found himself deprived of the protection which no one needed more than he. He was insulted, and when his friends would have interfered the Senate was hurriedly called together, declared the state in danger, and made Opimius virtually Dictator for the time.

This was the "bell of revolution," and both sides caught up arms and rushed at each other. Opimius and his partisans had had more time in which to perfect their plans, and, being the more powerful, scattered the party of Caius. Three thousand were slain in headlong flight. Caius sought refuge on the hill of the Aventine, but was driven out and ran across a bridge over the Tiber. He plunged into the woods on the other side, but his enemies pursued him relentlessly, and they pressed him so hard that his escape was soon cut off. All through his peril he was attended by a faithful slave, whom he now ordered to give him the fatal blow, which he saw must come. The slave obeyed, and afterward slew himself (B.C. 121).

Caius was declared a rebel, his estates were confiscated, and his widow was deprived of her dowry. The time soon came when the people awoke to the horror of what they had allowed to be done. They erected statues to the memory of the two murdered brothers, and declared sacred every spot where their blood had stained the earth.

Yet, for all practical purposes, the success of the nobles was complete; and, that they so considered it, was shown by the triumph which they celebrated. Their friends were assured that all the acts of the Gracchi would be reversed, and the former balance of political power restored, in which of course the whole advantage would be on the side of the nobles and aristocracy. The Sempronian laws were abolished one after another, or so modified that their effectiveness was taken away. The long delay in carrying out the agrarian laws, and their imperfect execution, had caused the people to lose faith in them, while the distribution of provisions among the poorer classes went a long way to satisfy them, and make them content to live in idleness in the city, in preference to going out in the country and tilling the land, even though it belonged to them.

The result of the free distribution of provisions which Caius himself had brought about was thus another illustration of the harm that is done by indiscriminate charity. But for such distribution, thousands of men would have become industrious husbandmen and laborers. As it was, they were transformed into so many dangerous vagrants.

While thus corrupting the commons, the senators had themselves grown equally corrupt. Never has there been an age when bribery and dishonor were more openly displayed. An instance of this is the Senate's treatment of the kings of Numidia in Africa, the grandsons of Massinissa. One of these, Jugurtha, was illegitimate, but he seized the kingdom and defeated the lawful heir, Adherbal, who fled to Rome for assistance.

The able Jugurtha had learned the power of a bribe, and the gold which his envoys carried to the Roman Senate did effective work. The commissioners who examined the matter divided Numidia between the rival claimants. Even with this Jugurtha was dissatisfied, so he again attacked Adherbal, took him prisoner, and put him to a cruel death. Then the Romans, glad of the excuse for interfering, ordered that Numidia should be occupied by a consular army. Again Jugurtha used his gold, and the expedition made such dishonorable terms that Memmius rose in the Senate and denounced in burning words the venality of some of its members. Jugurtha was summoned to Rome, being guaranteed safe-conduct, but was ordered to give the names of the men who had accepted his bribes. He obeyed the summons, and seemed to be ready to do all that was demanded of him, but with characteristic cunning contrived to have another tribune interpose in the proceedings against him. He was allowed to go home, and it is said that as he passed out of the gates he exclaimed: "O venal city! as soon as a purchaser can be found, thou art destined to fall."

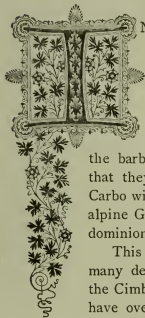
Behind Jugurtha tramped a Roman army. The consul Albinus did nothing decisive, and when he returned to Rome to hold the comitia, or public assembly for electing officers, he left the army in command of his brother Aulus, who was defeated by Jugurtha and his soldiers compelled to pass under the yoke. The angered Senate disavowed the surrender, and sent Albinus back to renew the war. The senators demanded the prosecution of the members who had accepted the bribes of Jugurtha. Æmilius Scaurus, one of the most eminent of the nobles, was the centre of general suspicion, and undoubtedly he was among the most guilty; but, with a cunning which has often been imitated since, he contrived to have himself made chairman of the investigating committee, and in this position presided at the condemnation of four consuls.



DEFEAT OF THE TEUTONES

Chapter XXXIII

BARBARIAN INVASION AND CIVIL WAR



N the midst of the furious wrangling in Rome, a thrill of alarm was caused in the year B.C. 113, by news that the barbaric races of the Cimbri and Teutones were moving southward from central Germany, with the intention of passing through the Alps, which towered like a wall between Italy and the northern wilderness. A formidable army interposed against the barbarians, and the Roman general Carbo made such threats that they retired, though they repulsed a treacherous attack by Carbo with great loss. Other Roman forces were sent into Trans-alpine Gaul, and they gradually pushed forward, till the Republic's dominion was established from the Alps to the Rhone.

This work, however, was tremendous, and accompanied by many defeats. Four armies were beaten in succession, and had the Cimbri and Teutones united and pressed southward, they must have overrun Italy and secured a success hardly second to that of the Gauls. But the barbarians were divided, and the Roman Senate was rousing to a sense of its own folly and weakness. More manly counsels were followed. The first step must be to crush Jugurtha. Q. Cæcilius Metellus was sent to supersede Albinus in the war against the African king; and no better choice could have been made. The integrity and honor of Metellus were so marked in an age where those qualities were woefully lacking, that once when he submitted his accounts to the judges, in answer to the charge of malversation, they refused to look at the documents.

They would not permit his name to be sullied by even the appearance of suspicion.

Associated with Metellus was a young man destined to win a unique glory for himself, since he rose from the humblest to the highest station in the Republic, and made a record which in many respects was never surpassed. This man was Caius Marius. He is said to have been an ordinary laborer in his youth, but he enlisted in the army and speedily attracted attention by his courage and skill. His services under Scipio before Numantia won the admiration of that general, who prophesied a brilliant future for him. This roused the ambition of the young Italian, who entered politics, and, in B.C. 119, was elected tribune. He was the ardent champion of the plebeians, and therefore was intensely hated by the nobles. His marriage with the distinguished family of the Cæsars (his wife being the aunt of Julius Cæsar) gave him an interest in the nobility, despite his natural tastes and instincts. He was one of the most valuable aids to Metellus in his successful campaign, and gained the love of the soldiers by laboring with them in the trenches and sharing all their privations. Metellus sneered at the political aspirations of his lieutenant, because of his humble birth, but, despite the opposition of the aristocracy, Marius was unexpectedly elected to the consulship. As consul he was assigned to command the attack on Numidia, in defiance of the Senate, who wished to prolong the command of Metellus.

Marius, in still further opposition to all traditions, enlisted his soldiers from the rabble and beggars of the city. This was against the rule which forbade any one to bear arms who had not a stake in the welfare of the Republic, but Marius welcomed all who flocked to his standard, drawn by the hope of plunder, and proud of the low-born origin of their leader. Metellus was prosecuting his war against Jugurtha, when news reached him that he had been superseded by Marius. He returned to Rome in anger, which was only partially soothed by the triumph granted him, without his having done anything specially to earn it.

Marius added to his laurels by his conduct of the war in Numidia. He captured stronghold after stronghold, but was baffled by the scorching desert to which Jugurtha withdrew, when hard pressed, and from which he dashed forth upon sudden raids that were of the most exasperating nature. Finally, Jugurtha was captured, without doubt through betrayal, and carried loaded with chains to Rome, where his fate was more cruel than he deserved. He was kept for two years to grace the triumphs of his conquerors, and finally thrown into the prison under the Capitol, where he lay dying for days with cold and hunger.

The capture of Jugurtha closed the war in Numidia, which had lasted from B.C. 111 to 106. Marius returned to Rome in 104 to claim his triumph, and to find that the honors of the consulship had been given him during his absence.

The vast hordes of the Cimbri had continued their plundering to the westward, but threatened to come back and burst through the Alps to gather the richer spoils that awaited them in Italy. Since the loss of her armies in that quarter, Rome had refrained from active operations, most of the inhabitants fleeing to the cities for shelter. Their helplessness was intolerably galling to the Romans, who clamored for Marius to lead their avenging forces. The nobles dared not oppose, and he was raised again to the consulship and given the conduct of the war. He was elected for the third, fourth, and fifth time in the following years, for all felt he was the only man who could save the Republic.

The recruits of Marius were raw and needed long and rigid training. He made his camp near the mouth of the Rhone, and would not allow his men to meet the enemy until they had undergone a long system of preparation. In the end, the barbarians began a hostile movement. The Cimbri proposed to flank the Alps and swarm into Italy through the Tyrol, while the Teutones were to crush the resistance of Marius and double the southern extremity of the mountains, where they touch the Mediterranean, after which the two armies were to meet at a point on the Po.

The Romans divided their legions to meet this attack. Marius was to hold his post in the Transalpine Province, while his colleague Catulus was to lead a second consular army to check the Cimbri. Marius restrained the impatience of his men, and refused all efforts of his enemies to draw him out into the plain. At last they gave over the attempt and determined to leave him in the rear. The hideous warriors by the thousands defiled past his camp, many derisively offering to take any messages which they might wish delivered to their families in Italy.

Marius grimly waited till the horde had gone by, when he broke camp and followed them. The barbarians were so confident and eager to attack him that he had only to choose his own ground. The spot selected was near *Aquæ Sextiæ*—the modern Aix—in Provence, where for nearly three days raged one of the greatest battles of ancient times. The invaders were destroyed. The loss of the barbarians was, according to some authorities, 100,000, while other historians make the number still greater.

The other Roman general Catulus was not equal to the task required of him. His men were panic-stricken at the approach of the savage Cimbri, and fled in headlong haste, with Catulus himself in the lead. Marius checked their flight, effected a junction of the two armies, and stopped the enemy on the further side of the Po. When at last the barbarians were forced to battle, it was only to suffer annihilation. When the men had been defeated, the women were attacked, and after a grim resistance from the shelter of their wagons the survivors slew themselves and their children. The whole nation perished.

This second famous fight was at Vercellæ to the west of Milan. It was really won mainly by Sulla, of whom we shall hear more, but it was natural that the people should give the glory to Marius, who had gained so many previous triumphs.

Troublous times had come to Rome. The condition of the slaves in Italy was unendurable. Driven to desperation, they had started fierce revolts, that were put down with merciless brutality, thousands of lives being sacrificed. Some of these uprisings took place while Marius was absent in Gaul, and the Romans grew alarmed for their own safety. In the year following his return, he was raised to the consulship for the sixth time. He was now filled with a consuming ambition and lent himself to the clamors of the popular faction, which was bent on reviving the agrarian demands of the Gracchi.

Despite his repeated elevation to the consulship, Marius was a failure in the important labor he had now to perform. In political matters, he lacked steadiness, courage, and persuasive argument; his policy offended many of his adherents. He heaped rewards upon the Italians and by that course filled the Roman commons with jealousy. In one instance, he conferred citizenship on a thousand veterans from Camerinum. The act was illegal and added to his unpopularity. To offset this he had numerous grants of land made to distinguished soldiers, on the ground that the territory in the Transalpine Province had been lost to the native population and reconquered by the Romans, who had the right to dispose of it as they pleased. Violence accompanied the measure, and Marius held aloof, supporting neither side. With the tribune Saturninus at their head, the populace drove their opponents out of the Forum; the venerable general Metellus was so grossly insulted by Saturninus that he retired into voluntary exile. Saturninus soon offered himself for re-election, and in his arrogance caused one of his adversaries to be assassinated in the Forum. Then he seized the Capitol; the state was declared to be in danger, and Marius was called upon to save it. He besieged Saturninus, and, by cutting off the water-pipes, compelled him to surrender, which he did under the pledge of safety. The exasperated people, however, would not be restrained, and slew the marplot.

Violence, anarchy, and bloodshed followed. In the year B. C. 90, the Social War, between the Romans and their Italian subjects, commenced and lasted through three campaigns. It is useless to give the long list of engagements, in which the victories, if the Roman historians are to be trusted, were almost uniformly on the side of their countrymen. In the midst of these alleged victories, the Romans empowered the consul Cæsar to offer such cities as had remained faithful the citizenship which they had refused to their adversaries. Marius was not entrusted with any important command in this war, perhaps because his sentiments were too similar to those of the enemy, but he had able repre-

The vast hordes of the Cimbri had continued their plundering to the westward, but threatened to come back and burst through the Alps to gather the richer spoils that awaited them in Italy. Since the loss of her armies in that quarter, Rome had refrained from active operations, most of the inhabitants fleeing to the cities for shelter. Their helplessness was intolerably galling to the Romans, who clamored for Marius to lead their avenging forces. The nobles dared not oppose, and he was raised again to the consulship and given the conduct of the war. He was elected for the third, fourth, and fifth time in the following years, for all felt he was the only man who could save the Republic.

The recruits of Marius were raw and needed long and rigid training. He made his camp near the mouth of the Rhone, and would not allow his men to meet the enemy until they had undergone a long system of preparation. In the end, the barbarians began a hostile movement. The Cimbri proposed to flank the Alps and swarm into Italy through the Tyrol, while the Teutones were to crush the resistance of Marius and double the southern extremity of the mountains, where they touch the Mediterranean, after which the two armies were to meet at a point on the Po.

The Romans divided their legions to meet this attack. Marius was to hold his post in the Transalpine Province, while his colleague Catulus was to lead a second consular army to check the Cimbri. Marius restrained the impatience of his men, and refused all efforts of his enemies to draw him out into the plain. At last they gave over the attempt and determined to leave him in the rear. The hideous warriors by the thousands defiled past his camp, many derisively offering to take any messages which they might wish delivered to their families in Italy.

Marius grimly waited till the horde had gone by, when he broke camp and followed them. The barbarians were so confident and eager to attack him that he had only to choose his own ground. The spot selected was near *Aquæ Sextiæ*—the modern Aix—in Provence, where for nearly three days raged one of the greatest battles of ancient times. The invaders were destroyed. The loss of the barbarians was, according to some authorities, 100,000, while other historians make the number still greater.

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sentatives. Two years after the offer named, it was extended to all the Italians, every one of whom, if he chose to come to Rome and claim the franchise within sixty days, was to receive it. The thirty-five tribes already existing were increased by ten, but the offer itself was not very generally accepted, because of the ceremonies required, which could only take place in the capital. The distant citizen did not think the reward worth the trouble it cost.

The full franchise, however, was given in special instances to different states in Spain, Gaul, and Africa, while the Latin franchise, which brought a certain advantage to the Roman, was bestowed even more widely, the entire nation of Transalpine Gauls receiving it. It was this liberal policy that undoubtedly saved Rome for the time from the ruin that impended over her.

We have now come to an important epoch, and it is necessary to pause for a moment to glance at the history of the ablest Roman, from the time of the younger Scipio until the appearance of Julius Cæsar. This was L. Cornelius Sulla, surnamed by himself Felix. He was born in B.C. 138. Mention has been already made of him, when he was elected quæstor, or state treasurer, and sent to Africa with the cavalry that Marius needed for the prosecution of the Jugurthine war. He rapidly gained a fine reputation, and it was he who secured the surrender of Jugurtha, whom he took in chains to Rome. Marius already showed jealousy over the distinction acquired by his subordinate, and the feeling afterward intensified into a resentment bordering on insanity.

After his victory at Vercellæ Sulla lived quietly in Rome for several years, until in B.C. 93 he stood for the prætorship, and won it by the plentiful use of money. The smouldering animosity between him and Marius would have burst forth in B.C. 91, but for the breaking out of the Social War, which caused the burial of all quarrels until the common danger was settled. In this war, the services of Sulla far outweighed those of Marius and intensified the enmity of that general.

Now it must be remembered that these two men represented different factions, which had long been warring against each other. You have learned of the humble origin of Marius, who was a plebeian, rough, impatient, irascible, and ignorant; Sulla was a patrician, subtle, wise, and highly educated. At the close of the Social War, Sulla was not quite fifty years old, while Marius was about seventy. Sulla was trained in all the Grecian accomplishments at which Marius sneered; he spoke and wrote Greek and was proud of his connection with the illustrious house of the Cornelii.

The personality of great men is always interesting, and it may be said of Sulla that the historians represent him as addicted to debauchery and degraded associates. He had bright blue eyes, but his complexion was coarse and blotched, and the Greeks compared it to a mulberry sprinkled with meal.

While there is no act of kindness recorded of him, and his manners were haughty and morose, he would shed tears over a story of suffering or sorrow. The nobles did not like him personally, but accepted him as their champion, for the reason that no one else could be secured who compared with him in ability.

If Marius hated Sulla with an insane fierceness, the latter held much the same sentiment toward Marius, though his feelings were under better control. Marius in the course of his campaigns carelessly left many tempting opportunities, which his younger rival was quick to seize and turn to the best account.

Mithridates, king of Pontus, was a bold and able soldier, who formed a grand plan of uniting the Asiatic states and Greece in a formidable conspiracy against the Roman dominion. His generals repeatedly defeated the Asiatic levies of the Romans, and he took possession of Bithynia, Cappadocia, Phrygia, and the Roman possessions in Asia Minor. By his orders, an appalling massacre of the Romans in the East took place, during which, in B.C. 88, eighty thousand were slain in a single day. He sent three powerful armies to assist the Greeks in their rebellion.

Sulla was consul when it became necessary to select a general to conduct the campaign against Mithridates. Sulla's claim to the position was therefore highest, but the thought that it would go to him was wormwood and gall to the aged Marius. He hurried from his retreat in Campania, and tried to convince the young soldiers in the Campus that he was still able to run, wrestle, and swim with the best of them; but his efforts were pitiful failures, and he was advised to return to his home and give place to a younger and better man. To his unbearable chagrin the Senate declared that younger and better man to be Sulla.

This was the time that Marius might better have died, but it was his misfortune as it has been that of many great men, like Miltiades, Themistocles, and others, to live long enough to shame the glory and brilliancy of his earlier years. Brooding over his treatment, Marius determined to commit treason to further his own ambition. Aided by demagogues, he started an agitation against the Senate and army, and secured his nomination to the command of the forces in the East in place of Sulla. But Sulla was still in Italy, and, at the head of six legions, he marched upon Rome. He was not expected, and the insurgents dissolved like snow in the sun upon the appearance of the army, while Marius was barely able to effect his escape from the city.

Sulla displayed his wise cunning by calling the people together the next day in the Forum, where he explained that a faction had obliged him to use force, and having taken arms, he would not lay them down till the power of the Senate was secured against mobs. He abrogated the enactments of Marius and his friends in favor of the Italians and the commons of the city, and repealed

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the provision of the constitution which gave the force of law to the resolutions of the people alone. Thus, while Marius had gone to one extreme, Sulla went to the other.

A price had been set upon the head of Marius, who was straining every nerve to prevent any of his enemies winning the reward. The romantic adventures which befell him are told by Plutarch, who says he first retired to a private farm at Solnium on the Latian coast, but, learning that he was unsafe, hurried to Ostia, hoping to embark on a vessel kept waiting there for him. He hid in a wagon under a load of beans, and finally made his escape in a trading vessel bound for Libya. The agonies of sea-sickness compelled him to land near Circeii, where he wandered in the pine groves of that lonely coast, keeping up the spirits of his companions by repeating the prodigies that had foretold his greatness. This was followed by numerous adventures, until, in the last extremity, he hid himself among the reeds at the mouth of the marshy Liris, where he was discovered and dragged from his dismal retreat. He was thrown into prison at Minturnæ, and the magistrate determined to put him to death and claim the reward. But when the slave, sent to despatch him, stepped into the gloom of the prison, he declared that he saw a vivid light issue from the captive's eyes, while an awful voice demanded: "Wretch! dare you slay Caius Marius?" The slave and the magistrate were terrified and released their prisoner, who succeeded at last in reaching the coast of Africa. Even there he was not allowed to rest. He was discovered seated amid the ruins of Carthage, comparing his fallen greatness to that of the city. The Roman governor commanded him to "move on," and he took temporary refuge on an island of the coast.

Meanwhile there was turbulence in Rome. The Samnites rose in revolt, and drew thousands of slaves and robbers to their standard. Metellus Pius, who was entrusted with repressing this new social war, could not force the insurgents to a decisive battle. A second Roman army, under Pompeius Strabo, was still at Picenum, and the Senate sent the late consul Pompeius Rufus to take command of the legions. There was not money to pay the soldiers, and a mutiny broke out in which Rufus was killed. Strabo, who was suspected of inciting the revolt, now appeared and restored order, but did not inquire into or punish any one for the crime.

No sooner had Sulla left for Asia, than Cinna the demagogue rushed to the front. He was consul, and announced himself as the restorer of the ancient order of things, demanding the recall of Marius and the exiles, and the full emancipation of Italy. Octavius, his colleague in the consulship, some of the tribunes, and a large number of citizens rallied and drove Cinna out of the city. He had counted upon the help of Strabo, but that general was not yet ready to act.

It was a time when no respect was paid to law, and Cinna was deprived of his consulship and L. Merula appointed in his place. Cinna fled into Campania, where he made the people believe he had suffered in their behalf, and soon collected a large number of armed followers, among whom were many exiles of the Marian party, and Samnites and Lucanians, the open enemies of the Republic. News of these doings was carried to Marius, wandering hither and thither in danger of capture and death, and he finally threaded his way through the ambuscades of his innumerable enemies and threw himself on the coast of Etruria, where he was joined by hundreds of slaves and others. With a force increasing as he advanced, he moved upon Rome from the north, while Cinna came from the south, and two of his generals threatened from other directions, so that Rome was surrounded by four of her own rebellious armies, with the warlike Samnites as their allies.

In the fearful extremity, the Senate turned to Metellus, and ordered him to make peace with the Samnites on whatever terms he could obtain. The conditions proposed by the foe were so intolerable that Metellus indignantly broke off the negotiation. Leaving a small force to watch the enemy, he made all haste to return and guard the city. The detachment left behind was quickly overpowered, and the Samnites rushed toward Rome, fiercely bent on its destruction.

Reduced to the last pitiful extremity, the Senate begged the mutinous Strabo to help them, trying to win his services by promises and flatteries; but he was dallying with the Marians. In the midst of his hesitation mutiny broke out in his own camp, and he would have been killed but for the devotion of his son Pompeius, who was greatly liked by the soldiers. A pestilence suddenly appeared, carrying off many in the armies and in the city. Strabo died either from the pestilence, or from a stroke of lightning, or from assassination, for each of these causes was assigned, and the last is the most reasonable.

All hope being gone, the Senate sent to Cinna to arrange terms, and when these were refused, to beg him to extend mercy. The scenes that followed are terrifying and shocking to the last degree (B.C. 86). Picture the merciless Cinna, seated in his magistrate's chair, with Marius, shaggy, unshorn, squalid and terrible in his grim triumph, standing beside him, the two waiting to decide the fate of their hapless victims. The victors had promised to spare the life of Octavius, and he, relying upon this pledge, refused to make his escape. When he came forward, he was seized in his robes of office. His head was cut off and by the orders of Cinna suspended from the rostra or stage of the Forum, the first time the barbarous exhibition was made, though it took place many times afterward.

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displayed in the Forum, and the bodies of the knights and others were cast out for burial. Among the slain were many of the noblest citizens of Rome. At last Cinna and Marius saw fit to check the horrible carnage, and steps were taken to restore order. They did not deign to call the assembly of the tribes, but nominated themselves to the highest magistracy. Marius became consul for the seventh time. He had reached the summit of his ambition, but he was old and his health was broken. He wished to leave his colleague to preside in the city, while he assumed the chief military command and wrested from Sulla the direction of affairs in the East. Soon after he fell ill, and taking to his bed remained a week, when he was found dead. The presumption is fair that the gloomy, lonely old man, who had long outlived his usefulness, took his life with his own hand.

Cinna next chose as his colleague Valerius Flaccus, who set himself vigorously to work to carry out the pledges made to the allies. The ten Italian tribes were suppressed, and the new citizens enrolled among the thirty-five tribes of the city; but the Samnites, the Lucanians, and others scornfully refused to accept the privilege. A proclamation was made adjusting all debts by the payment of one-fourth of them. Then Flaccus put himself at the head of the legions intended for the Pontic War, and proceeded to the East to meet the movements of Sulla.

Meanwhile, Mithridates had gained a series of brilliant successes. He captured Bithynia and Cappadocia, and then, crossing the Ægean Sea, received the submission of its islands, while his fleet took Athens with its harbor and all the naval equipments. He was generally welcomed as a deliverer, and the danger to Rome was of the gravest nature, when Sulla landed on the eastern shore of the Adriatic.

This general was at the head of five legions, whom he encouraged to plunder and devastate to the fullest extent. He laid siege to Athens, and finally reduced it by breaking through the long walls of Themistocles. Many of the citizens are said to have escaped by lowering themselves from the walls at night. Sulla gave unrestrained license to his troops, and the sacking of the once proud capital was marked by fearful excesses. The Romans next met a vast force of Orientals in the open plain, and routed them in the terrific battle of Chæronea. Then Flaccus appeared and summoned Sulla to surrender. Before the struggle between them could open, a second armament of Mithridates came within reach. This was disastrously defeated at Orchomenus, and the king of Pontus was compelled to withdraw from Greece.

The country was thus left vacant for the struggle between the two Roman armies. A mutiny broke out in that of Flaccus, during which he was assassinated. The soldiers selected his successor, and then demanded that, instead of

being led against Sulla, they should advance into Asia that they might plunder the provinces. In the fighting which followed, it fell to the lot of Sulla to save Mithridates from capture by the other Romans. This gave to Sulla the power of making his own terms with the king of Pontus, who surrendered Bithynia and Cappadocia and the Roman province of Asia, with most of his fleet and treasures, whereupon he was admitted as an ally of the Republic. Then Sulla turned upon the other Roman army; but, instead of fighting the soldiers, he bribed them to leave the standards of their commander, who in his extremity fell upon his own sword and perished.

The eyes of Sulla were upon Rome, from which news had been brought to him of the success of Cinna and his savage partisans. He hurried thither, arriving in Italy in B.C. 83. He gave out that on his arrival with his thirty thousand veterans he would punish the foes of the Republic and not forget his own enemies. This was a terrifying warning, for the triumph of the Marians had filled half of the Senate with their partisans. Cinna and Carbo, the successor of Flaccus, prepared themselves for the struggle, but the Italian levies refused to join them. Cinna led a body of troops across the Adriatic, and then some of his own mutineers slew him. Carbo raged like a wounded lion in Rome, where he hurled many of his enemies from the Tarpeian Rock and drove the tribunes from the city. By this time, Sulla had landed with five legions in Italy. He defeated one enemy after another, until, through long and desperate fighting, he entered Rome in triumph. Then, with a cruelty as fiendish as that of Cinna and Marius, he carried out his threat of revenging himself upon the foes of himself and the Republic. Day after day, the lists of proscribed ones were published, and the victims fell as swiftly as they did centuries later in France during the hideous Reign of Terror. The inhuman miscreants even refused to let the body of Marius rest in peace, but dug it from its sepulchre on the banks of the Anio, and flung it into the stream. One of the dead warrior's relatives was captured, and instead of being decently killed was tortured to death. We weary of the carnival of violence and crime, and close the record with a curious incident.

Among the Romans was a youth of eighteen, a gay, roystering fellow, who was related by blood to Marius and by marriage to Cinna. His easy good-nature made him popular with all his acquaintances, and Sulla promised to spare him on condition that he should repudiate his wife. The young man refused and fled into the Sabine mountains. The assassins hurried after him, like so many bloodhounds, while his friends in Rome pleaded for his pardon. Finally Sulla consented to spare him. "But beware," he added; "in that young trifer there is more than one Marius." Well might he utter the exclamation, for the youth to whom he referred was Julius Cæsar.

displayed in the Forum, and the bodies of the knights and others were cast out for burial. Among the slain were many of the noblest citizens of Rome. At last Cinna and Marius saw fit to check the horrible carnage, and steps were taken to restore order. They did not deign to call the assembly of the tribes, but nominated themselves to the highest magistracy. Marius became consul for the seventh time. He had reached the summit of his ambition, but he was old and his health was broken. He wished to leave his colleague to preside in the city, while he assumed the chief military command and wrested from Sulla the direction of affairs in the East. Soon after he fell ill, and taking to his bed remained a week, when he was found dead. The presumption is fair that the gloomy, lonely old man, who had long outlived his usefulness, took his life with his own hand.

Cinna next chose as his colleague Valerius Flaccus, who set himself vigorously to work to carry out the pledges made to the allies. The ten Italian tribes were suppressed, and the new citizens enrolled among the thirty-five tribes of the city; but the Samnites, the Lucanians, and others scornfully refused to accept the privilege. A proclamation was made adjusting all debts by the payment of one-fourth of them. Then Flaccus put himself at the head of the legions intended for the Pontic War, and proceeded to the East to meet the movements of Sulla.

Meanwhile, Mithridates had gained a series of brilliant successes. He captured Bithynia and Cappadocia, and then, crossing the *Ægean* Sea, received the submission of its islands, while his fleet took Athens with its harbor and all the naval equipments. He was generally welcomed as a deliverer, and the danger to Rome was of the gravest nature, when Sulla landed on the eastern shore of the Adriatic.

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